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COATS.

COATS are not strictly men, and men are not strictly coats. Yet there is a remarkable tendency to identification between them. In considering the testaceous tribes, it is not the animals themselves, but the shells, that we chiefly regard; so, in our thoughts respecting men, we go little beyond the external covering. If we set ourselves to a candid recollection of the impressions which we are accustomed to receive from our fellow-creatures, we shall be astonished to find how much space is occupied by mere drapery—how essential to our notion of any friend is the image of his coat, his hat, his vest, or that garment which may be imagined but not expressed—and how impossible it is to form a notion of him in any other appearance. Even in thinking of individuals whom we have never seen, it is always in some habit that they come before us—some habit which we suppose it likely that they may wear. So, also, in our ideas of official persons, the official dress, and not the man, is painted on the mental retina. What is a judge, in the abstract, but a certain quantity of wig, velvet, and ermine? What is a magistrate but an eidolon of scarlet, fur, and gold chain? What is a herald but something with a bedizened sheet before and a bedizened sheet behind? What a soldier but a piece of scarlet, liable to a difference of facings? In all these cases, and many others, the costume, originally adopted from a sense of characteristic appropriateness, stands forth as the very thing which it clothes. The organised body within is but temporary and accidental: the dress is perennial. Ambition, therefore, might be defined as only an anxiety entertained by certain intelligent beings to get possession, for a certain time, of certain decorative integuments, which have been appointed to exist, and must always be kept filled, like the kingly office according to the English law-fiction. One wishes to get into a wig of three tails; another into a wig of one tail; a third is content if he can thrust his head into a wig with no tail at all. Rising in the army is but promotion from a coat with one stripe across the elbow, to a coat with two and more. At the university, men struggle their way from cap to cap, and from gown to gown, as if the *summum bonum* consisted in tassels. To become but the peg for the hanging of a bit of ribbon will cause men to mount the "imminent deadly breach;" and the occupancy of a certain kind of garter is the highest honour that can be obtained by a subject. Merit is just so many balls on a coronet, and high birth is altogether a thing of coat armour. In all such matters, the externe alone tells. No one, in bowing to a grandee, thinks of bowing to the man; he bows to the star, which may be another's to-morrow, when it will call forth exactly the same homage. There is no proprietorship in glory. All that can be done is to obtain a short lease of some of its trophies. We can merely go to the property-room of Fame, and request the honour of being allowed to dress for some particular character which we desire to personate.

In the ordinary walks of life, we find the same assimilation of the body to its vestments. A bean, above all beings, is to be known by his clothes, for he, above all, consists expressly of a suit. In his case it is not assimilation—it is clothes all over, and nothing but clothes. Every age, however, and almost every profession, can be distinguished by some external trait or other. There is always, about twenty, a certain smartness in the attiring of the neck—and also a certain spruceness about the vest—which mark youth at once. In the decent drudge of the public offices, there is a tendency to short gaiters, which would put him out even in the middle of the day. The skirts of a

country gentleman can be distinguished by a certain obese breadth and intensity of dangle through a labyrinth of street passengers. There is no disguising the peculiar black of a clergyman, even where there is nothing in the cut, or in any other part of the aspect, to tell more unequivocally what he is. Though the face be averted, the years of all can be told to within ten. Somehow, as men advance in life, a soberness creeps into their tailoring. The back-breadths decrease in friskiness of seam as people get on; and by the time they are fifty, there is as much graveness in their boots as in their tempers. With advancing wealth, too, there is a progressive difference. A "rich fellow enough" betrays himself by a certain solidity and closeness of appearance, which the poor fellow can never hope to imitate. Pockets become quite another thing when there is something to put into them—almost buttoning up of their own accord. Country people are easily distinguished from city figures. The clothes of a true swain hang baggily and unthinkingly about him, speaking as broadly as his speech of rusticity. The true cit, again, has as much cleverness in his coat as in his character—

And you could almost say his body thought.

In street and in field, every kind of specialty of disposition and habit blossoms in the vesture. The disorderly man, the orderly man—the dull man, the smart man—the droll fellow, the churl—the saddened, and the cheerful—all can be recognised in an instant by their cut or their colour. A white hat is a confession of levity and good humour as unequivocal as a vacant or a laughing countenance. If you see a man put on either that article or a light waistcoat for summer, you need not be afraid to accost him—nay, though he should be the keeper of a coach-office. Be scrupulous, however, how you enter into any serious relations with such persons. A light heart and a thin pair of breeches were well put together in the sailor's song. And a light heart, though extremely affable and pleasant, may not have much prudence about it. Beware then of the children of Nankin. On the other hand, if you see a man of the world steadily resist all the influences of July and August, and hold to his one unvarying suit of black, you may entirely depend on him. He must be a most determined person, not to be inveigled into pleasantries or error—a careful builder up and custodian of character—one who is not to be defeated either by himself or any other body. Your rigidly dark-suited men with white neckcloths are the very men that keep all the world right: the rest, or at least no small portion of them, only trifle and work mischief.

To prove still more clearly how "all compact" are our ideas of human beings and their vesture, let us only reflect on the historical personages with whose external figures we happen to be acquainted. Can we suppose Dr Johnson in any other costume than that of the eighteenth century—in any thing else than that particular brown suit in which Boswell has described him? Could any one imagine Queen Elizabeth in the dress of a modern fine lady, or even so little altered as she would be by the want of that enormous standing frill in which she is usually painted? There is not one of the great men between the Restoration and the era of the French Revolution—the great peruke epoch—whom we could picture to ourselves in the cropped hair of the present age. The absence of the dressed head would change every one of them. Pope would be no longer the classic poet, nor Addison the prince of prose-writers, if unwigged: it would be worse than taking the laurel from Petrarch. In like manner, our whole idea of the civil war would be revolutionised by the extinction of the Vandyke collar.

Were such an event to take place, we should need to discharge from our minds all we know of the "Great Rebellion," and read it over again with entirely new eyes—and even then it is questionable if Edgehill would appear to us as quite Edgehill, or Copredy Bridge as exactly Copredy Bridge. A sitting of the Long Parliament without steeple hats and plain cloaks and doublets would never impress us as hitherto. A Milton without the costume of his time would be no better than that "mute inglorious" one whom Gray supposes: a Cromwell without buff, plate armour, and a red nose, could not be conceived as "guilty of his country's blood." And so on with the illustrious of antiquity. What would become of the Greeks without their majestic robes?—how would the Romans look in drab trousers? Could any burlesque be so complete as a picture of Cato in the habiliments of Benjamin Franklin, or, better still, sage Poor Richard in the toga of Cato? A Sylla in the green surtout of a Bonaparte, or Marius sitting among the ruins of Carthage in a greatcoat and top-boots, would they not excite any feelings but those with which we read of them in Roman history, or contemplate them in good historical paintings? Alexander, again, in a field-marshal's uniform, or the wife of Darius and her ladies visiting his camp in dresses copied from the last number of *La Belle Assemblée*—how inconceivably ridiculous! It is not surely that the one dress is in any degree less consistent with the dignity of history or of poetry than the other; pictures representing transactions in modern history are not found to be less effective, on account of the modern costume. It is just that our associations in reference to these subjects are settled—that Alexander is only Alexander in an antique dress, and Franklin only Franklin in a modern one—and that, when any alteration is made in their proper external appearance, they entirely cease to be what we are accustomed to think them, producing a sense of the most ludicrous incongruity in our minds. Till lately it was customary to represent all characters on the stage in contemporary costume, Hamlet, for instance, in gold-laced clothes and rolled stockings, and Macbeth in a dress which General Burgoyne might have used at the head of his troops without exciting any surprise. At the same time, sculptors were in the habit of putting modern great men in the attire of Roman equestrians, thus exactly reversing the absurdity of the players. Can there be the least doubt that both of these practices tended greatly to detract from the effect which was designed to be produced on the minds of the beholders?

So identical are dress and person to me, that I often think of inventing a set of signs to express particular suits and kinds of clothes, so as to ascertain and describe the characters of all whom I know. I am persuaded that much more accurate accounts could be given of particular individuals by this means, than by saying that such an one is a good man, such another a plodding man, and so forth. The smallest shade of frivolity in stock or watch-ribbon could thus be subtracted from the general sum of respectability, and the result be expressed with an accuracy unknown to the most exquisitely poised paragraphs of Plutarch and Robertson. Men could be considered algebraically, and female worth demonstrated by cap and pinnars as clearly as the doctrine of the hypotenuse. I always find that, if I do not like some one, I detest his coat as much as himself. I take piques at the neckcloths of my friends as readily as at their absurd opinions; and, on seeing a friend twice with his vest buttoned awry, vote him a dangerous character, and resolve to have no more to do with him. On the other hand,

when I like any one very much, I like his vesture as much as any thing about him. I like him "all and whole," as the legal phrase is—without the drawback of a button.

The moral of the whole is, that, since dress is thus a thing identical with us, and unavoidably enters into the estimates we are accustomed to form of each other, it can never but be a matter of considerable consequence in the economy of human life. Neglected it may be by the sloven, despised by the lofty speculator, and overlooked by many who have never given it any reflection; but none besides the hermit can be altogether independent of it. It is a becoming part of the *amour propre* of every one, to have a dress worthy of himself—such as may neither seem to make undue pretensions, nor to be needlessly modest or humble, but appropriate to his figure, age, and character, and upon the whole recommendatory. Much good taste and much good sense may be shown in dressing, without making it to any great degree a study, but simply as the character thus naturally expresses itself. Extremes are most to be avoided; the excess of fineness, as betraying the excess of vanity; a too vigilant anxiety to be in the fashion, as denoting slavishness; and too much plainness, as likely to awake a suspicion of the pride that apes humility. There is a happy medium which it is the business of good sense to discover, and which, we fear, will be discovered by nothing else.

PATTERN DRAWING AND COLOURING.

Much attention has of late been paid to the improvement of the working classes, and to the diffusion of the principles of taste throughout the country. At present a select committee of the House of Commons is taking evidence in regard to the state of the arts as applied to manufactures, and devising methods of improvement in this particular. By almost all the witnesses examined, the inferiority of our artisans in taste and originality of design has been admitted—a fact which we are almost ashamed to record. It would appear that the people of Great Britain, in their ardent pursuit of wealth by means of mechanical and commercial industry, have very much neglected the cultivation of taste in relation to manufactures, so that, notwithstanding their vast capital and other resources, they are beat out of every market for fancy goods where the French and other continental nations have the freedom of competition. While, indeed, something like five-sixths of the exports of France are articles in which taste in respect of design or colouring is the predominant element, only a minute portion of all that England produces of this nature is exported. This is so discreditable a truth, that something must now be done to remedy the evil which it involves. Our artisans must arouse from their lethargy, and learn to emulate their brethren at Lyons and other seats of French manufacture. They must exert their energies to draw ornamental patterns which will be of universal acceptance; and they must so learn to blend the different colours harmoniously in their designs, that the eye will delight in their contemplation, and a desire to purchase be excited. Along with an improvement of this nature, it will, of course, be necessary for the legislature to grant protection to designers, in so far as giving them a copyright in their patterns, for, until this be done, it would be hopeless to expect any general or great improvement in the ornamental departments of our manufactures.

Amongst those who have been called before the committee, in order to give information and suggestions upon the subject, we may mention our ingenious townsman Mr D. R. Hay, house-painter, who has given, in his *Treatise on Harmonious Colouring*, some elementary instructions adapted to this particular object. It appears to be his opinion, that the most simple and most effectual mode of improving the taste of the working classes in ornamental design, is, before establishing schools, to disseminate, as widely as possible, printed instructions similar to those to which we have just alluded. In this opinion we entirely concur, and therefore give Mr Hay's instructions, in the hope that many of the younger portion of our readers will avail themselves of the opportunity thus afforded them of commencing so pleasant and profitable a study.

"A knowledge of drawing is, next to reading and writing, an essential branch of education for the manufacturer and mechanic, and to every one a source of enjoyment. The course of study I am about to point out is within the reach of all—even those in the most humble situations of life. They will find it of easy acquirement, and a source of continual enjoyment, in the improved medium through which it will lead them to view the most ordinary productions of nature. She shall be their instructor; for all that I can pretend to do, is to point out to them a practical mode of receiving her lessons. To the uninitiated I therefore address myself; and let them not be dissuaded from beginning, by having no predilection for the study—the more they persevere, the more they will love it.

In the first place, your attempts ought to be of the

most simple nature, and on as large a scale as you can conveniently adopt; therefore begin by procuring a black painted board or slate, of from two to three feet square, and with white chalk practise the drawing of squares, circles, and ovals, without any guide to your hand. You may make yourself copies of these figures by the ordinary rules. When you are tolerably perfect at these, upon the proper combination of which depends all linear harmony, you may practise in the same way triangles, hexagons, octagons, and such other figures as arise from the various combinations of the straight line. Next, by your circular and oval lines, you may form crescents, circular and flattened volutes, regular undulations, and other figures, which arise out of their various combinations, first making an accurate copy to yourself of each figure by measurement, and continuing to practise until you can form it by the eye with perfect ease. Avoid forming your figures by little bits at a time; do each line as much as possible by one sweep of the hand.

When you find yourself pretty perfect in this kind of practice, I would recommend you at once to draw from nature. You may take for your first subject a cabbage leaf, the larger the better; and persevere in copying it, full size, until you can represent it accurately in outline, with its principal fibres. You may then vary your practice by other simple subjects of a similar kind, until you find you can do them all with ease.

Before endeavouring to draw more than one leaf at a time, you must know a little of perspective. The most simple mode by which you will attain such knowledge of this art as will be most useful for your present purpose, is to hang a circular object, such as a hoop, between you and the window; set it a-moving gently round, recede a little from it, and you will find that, as one side of it retires and the other comes forward, the circle which it describes becomes narrower and narrower, until it disappears altogether, and leaves nothing but a dark line, as if a stick instead of a hoop were hanging before you. I recommend you to do this between you and the window, because the hoop will appear like a dark line, and you will thereby be better able to mark the change that takes place in the shape of the circle. Fix it in various positions, and draw from it, and observe that it is a different figure from an oval. A knowledge of this simple fact is all that you require of perspective in the meantime. You may now hang up your cabbage leaf, or that of any other large and well-developed vegetable, and you will observe the same change in its figure as it turns round. Make an outline of its shape while its front is half turned from you, then bring it from between you and the light, and place it where the light will fall upon it, with its face half turned from you as when it hung before the window. Take your outline, and within it draw the principal fibres as you see them. To do this properly will require a great deal of practice, but it will pave the way to your being able to draw the most complete groups of flowers and foliage that can be placed before you. You may now hang before you a small branch of any tree or plant with two or more leaves upon it—the larger the leaves are, the better—and endeavour to make outlines of them, varying their shape according to their perspective as already described; be particular on this point, for a great deal depends upon it. I knew an intelligent tradesman so unaware of the simple fact of a circular object altering its shape by being seen obliquely, that he returned his portrait to have all the buttons made quite round; for although they appeared so at a little distance, he found they were not, by actual measurement, like those upon his coat.

To gain anything like a tolerable accuracy in this first stage of your lessons may occupy from six weeks to two months; that is, supposing you only practise at leisure hours.

You may now lay aside your chalk and slate, and provide yourself with a few sheets of common cartridge paper, and some pieces of common charcoal—that made from lime-tree is the best. Stretch a whole sheet of your cartridge paper upon your board by a wafer or a little paste at each corner. Place before you a cabbage, cauliflower, stalk of dock blades, or any such large vegetable, and they will be more picturesque if the outer leaves are hanging loose. Copy these carefully in outline, using your charcoal gently, that any inaccuracy may be easily dusted off. A large thistle with its foliage is likewise an excellent example, but more difficult. Indeed you cannot go wrong in your choice; hemlock, fern, nettle, are all worthy of your study. From these the richest and most effective of Gothic ornaments were taken by our forefathers. The more you study such subjects, the more beauty and grace you will find in their forms. I need not here remind you of what suggested the richest of pure architectural ornaments, the Corinthian Capital—a basket with a weed growing round it.

Your next practice should be light and shade. Bruise a bit of your charcoal to powder, take a piece of any kind of cloth upon the point of your finger, dip it into the powder, and rub it upon such parts of your outlined subject as you observe in the original do not receive the direct light of the window; and where it appears lightest, touch your copy with your

* A small and cheap work, forming a complete guide to the practice of Drawing and Perspective, according to the principles of science, will in a short time be published as one of the treatises in CHAMBERS'S EDUCATIONAL COURSE.

chalk, leaving the clean cartridge paper intermediately as a middle tint. Carry on with this sort of practice for some months.

For the coarse paper upon which you have hitherto practised, you may now substitute what is called drawing cartridge, which, instead of being merely fixed at the corners, must be pasted all round the edge; for charcoal, a black-lead pencil, a swan quill hair pencil, and Indian ink—which latter article is now very cheap. You may, however, still sketch in your subject lightly with charcoal, as it is more easily erased; and when you have got it quite correct, go over it with your black-lead pencil. Rub down plenty of the Indian ink, for much of the freedom of your work will depend upon the wholesale way in which your shades are washed in. When you have diluted this to the requisite degree of depth for your lightest shades, paint them in with your camel-hair pencil. Let this first shading dry; then give another coating where the shades appear deeper, and darken the mixture for the deepest touches. Continue this practice for six months before attempting smaller subjects than those I have described. You will now find little difficulty in copying the best examples of either ancient or modern ornament that can be laid before you; but flowers are your best practice, as you will now have obtained sufficient freedom, from practising upon the large subjects that I have recommended, to prevent you from getting too finical and minute. I cannot lead you farther; you must go to a drawing-master for the proper use of colours. Should your patterns be adapted to damasks, however, you will have no use for this, unless for your amusement.

I am aware that this course of study would be useless to many, were the present style of patterns in their particular branches of manufacture to continue in fashion; for many of these designs are a jumble of forms of the most nondescript nature. Improvement, however, is loudly called for, and I trust these simple instructions may prove a first step towards it.

To those who have gained a facility in copying the beautiful forms which prevail in the vegetable kingdom, and who have had such instructions in the use of water-colours as may enable them to copy individual flowers with ease, I would recommend the acquirement of a thorough knowledge of the laws of harmonious colouring. They will then be able to group and arrange flowers in the most agreeable and effective manner in regard to colour, as their previous experience must have taught them to accomplish in combination of form.

Dr Ure says, that 'the modes in which taste is cultivated at Lyons deserve particular study and imitation in this country. Among the weavers of the place, the children, and every body connected with devising patterns, much attention is devoted to every thing in any way connected with the beautiful, either in figure or colour. Weavers may be seen in their holiday leisure gathering flowers, and grouping them in the most engaging combinations. They are continually suggesting new designs to their employers, and are thus the fruitful source of elegant patterns.' Hence the French flower patterns are remarkably free from incongruities, being copied from nature with scientific precision.

All these facilities for the improvement of our fancy manufactures are within the reach of the most humble. The pursuit of such a course of study as I have endeavoured to point out, would not only augment their sources of innocent pleasure, but lead them to other instructive pursuits. The youth, in searching for the most graceful and picturesque plants in nature's most profuse and wildest productions, would be naturally led to commence the study of botany; for he would then have some interest in the inquiry. And it may be easily imagined with what avidity the more advanced would add to his knowledge of that pleasing science, or the gratification he would derive from the study and practice of horticulture.

I need scarcely point out the advantages to be derived from the cultivation of flowers by those engaged in designing ornamental patterns. The productions of a well managed flower-garden to such would be, in my opinion, of more real utility, as objects of study, than the contents of the Louvre. In those productions of nature they will find the most exquisite beauty and elegance of form, and, even in single flowers, the most perfect combinations of colouring.

In saying that the study of such subjects is of more utility to the ornamental designer than that of those great works of art which have been the admiration of ages, I do not mean to undervalue the benefit that any one, and especially the artist, may derive from studying works of this description. I am aware that 'the eye has its principle of correspondence with what is just, beautiful, and elegant, and that it acquires, like the ear, an habitual delicacy, and answers, with the same provisions, to the finest impressions. Being therefore versed in the works of the best masters, it soon learns to distinguish true impressions from false, and grace from affectation.' I have therefore not the least doubt, that those who have risen to some degree of eminence as ornamental designers, would reap great benefit in attaining a knowledge of the various styles and subtleties of colouring, by carefully studying and copying, in masses of colour alone, the best works of art to which they can get access, and applying these arrangements to the particular figures of their patterns.

An eminent artist, now residing at Rome, in writ-

ing to me of decorative painting, says, 'Why should we not have rooms on all principles and harmonies of colours—a Rembrandt, a Rubens, a Titian, and a Paul Veronese—with the furniture and ornaments corresponding to the character and tone of the apartment? I would extend it even to the introduction of flowers of a suitable colour and character. Lucullus' hall of Apollo would grow dim before a saloon of Titian.'

This would certainly be a great refinement in decoration, and is worthy of the particular attention of those engaged in such matters. But how much more practically easy would it be for the designer of the pattern of a carpet, a shawl, or such other variously coloured article, to adopt the hint? Yet it ought always to be kept in mind, that the studying or copying of pictures, in any way, is merely an auxiliary, and that any thing like an approximation to perfection in ornamental designs or colouring, can only be attained by having recourse to Nature herself, 'who,' as Sir Joshua Reynolds says, 'is always at hand; and, in comparison of whose rules, the best coloured pictures are but faint and feeble.'

THE FOREST OF ARDEN, A STORY.*

DURING the time that France was divided into provinces (or dukedoms as they were called), there reigned in one of these provinces an usurper, who had deposed and banished his elder brother, the lawful duke.

The duke, who was thus driven from his dominions, retired with a few faithful followers to the forest of Arden; and here the good duke lived with his loving friends, who had put themselves into a voluntary exile for his sake, while their lands and revenues enriched the false usurper; and custom soon made the life of a careless ease they led here more sweet to them than the pomp and uneasy splendour of a courtier's life. Here they lived like the old Robin Hood of England, and to this forest many noble youths daily resorted from the court, and did spend the time carelessly, as they did who lived in the golden age. In the summer they lay along under the fine shade of the large forest trees, marking the playful sports of the wild deer; and so fond were they of these poor dappled fools, who seemed to be the native inhabitants of the forest, that it grieved them to be forced to kill them to supply themselves with venison for their food. When the cold winds of winter made the duke feel the change of his adverse fortune, he would endure it patiently, and say, "These chilling winds which blow upon my body, are true counsellors; they do not flatter, but represent truly to me my condition; and though they bite sharply, their tooth is nothing like so keen as that of unkindness and ingratitude. I find that, however men speak against adversity, yet some sweet uses are to be extracted from it; like the jewel, precious for medicine, which is taken from the head of the venomous and despised toad." In this manner did the patient duke draw an useful moral from every thing that he saw; and by the help of this moralising turn in that life of his, remote from public haunts, he could find tongues in trees, books in the running brooks, sermons in stones, and good in every thing.

The banished duke had an only daughter, named Rosalind, whom the usurper, Duke Frederick, when he banished her father, still retained in his court as a companion for his own daughter Celia. A strict friendship subsisted between these ladies, which the disagreement between their fathers did not in the least interrupt, Celia striving, by every kindness in her power, to make amends to Rosalind for the injustice of her own father in deposing the father of Rosalind; and whenever the thoughts of her father's banishment, and her own dependence on the false usurper, made Rosalind melancholy, Celia's whole care was to comfort and console her.

One day when Celia was talking in her usual kind manner to Rosalind, a messenger entered to tell them that if they wished to see a wrestling match, which was just going to begin, they must come instantly to the court before the palace; and Celia, thinking it would amuse Rosalind, agreed to go and see it.

In those times, wrestling, which is only practised now by country clowns, was a favourite sport even in the courts of princes, and before fair ladies and princesses. To this wrestling match, therefore, Celia and Rosalind went. They found that it was likely to prove a very tragical sight; for a large and powerful man, who had long been practised in the art of wrestling, and had slain many men in contests of this kind, was just going to wrestle with a very young man, who, from his extreme youth and inexperience in the art, the beholders all thought would certainly be killed.

When the duke saw Celia and Rosalind, he said, "How now, daughter and niece, are you crept hither to see the wrestling? You will take little delight in it, there is such odds in the men: in pity to this young man, I would wish to persuade him from wrestling. Speak to him, ladies, and see if you can move him."

The ladies were well pleased to perform this humane office, and first Celia entreated the young stranger that he would desist from the attempt; and then Rosalind spoke so kindly to him, and with such feeling

consideration for the danger he was about to undergo, that, instead of being persuaded by her gentle words to forego his purpose, all his thoughts were bent to distinguish himself by his courage in this lovely lady's eyes. But these requests he gracefully and modestly refused, and forthwith the wrestling match began. The result proved that his skill was equal to his modesty. The kindness shown to him by the fair and noble ladies gave him courage and strength, so that he performed wonders; and in the end completely conquered his antagonist, who was so much hurt, that for a while he was unable to speak or move.

The Duke Frederick was much pleased with the courage and skill shown by this young stranger, and desired to know his name and parentage, meaning to take him under his protection. The stranger said his name was Orlando, and that he was the youngest son of Sir Rowland de Bois.

Sir Rowland de Bois, the father of Orlando, had been dead some years; but when he was living, he had been a true subject and dear friend of the banished duke: therefore when Frederick heard Orlando was the son of his banished brother's friend, all his liking for this brave young man was changed into displeasure, and he left the place in very ill humour. Hating to hear the very name of any of his brother's friends, and yet still admiring the valour of the youth, he said, as he went out, that he wished Orlando had been the son of any other man.

Rosalind was delighted to hear that her new favourite was the son of her father's old friend; and she said to Celia, "My father loved Sir Rowland de Bois, and if I had known this young man was his son, I would have added tears to my entreaties before he should have ventured."

Frederick being enraged at the sight of Sir Rowland de Bois' son, which reminded him of the many friends the banished duke had among the nobility, and having been for some time displeased with his niece, because the people praised her for her virtues, and pitied her for her good father's sake, his malice suddenly broke out against her; and while Celia and Rosalind were talking of Orlando, Frederick entered the room, and with looks full of anger ordered Rosalind instantly to leave the palace, and follow her father into banishment; telling Celia, who in vain pleaded for her, that he had only suffered Rosalind to stay upon her account. "I did not then," said Celia, "entreat you to let her stay, for I was too young at that time to value her; but now that I know her worth, and that we so long have slept together, rose at the same instant, learned, played, and ate together, I cannot live out of her company." Frederick replied, "She is too subtle for you; her smoothness, her very silence, and her patience, speak to the people, and they pity her. You are a fool to plead for her, for you will seem more bright and virtuous when she is gone; therefore open not your lips in her favour, for the doom which I have passed upon her is irrevocable."

When Celia found she could not prevail upon her father to let Rosalind remain with her, she generously resolved to accompany her; and, leaving her father's palace that night, she went along with her friend to seek Rosalind's father, the banished duke, in the forest of Arden.

Before they set out, Celia considered that it would be unsafe for two young ladies to travel in the rich clothes they then wore; she therefore proposed that they should disguise their rank by dressing themselves like country maids. Rosalind said it would be a still greater protection if one of them was to be dressed like a man; and so it was quickly agreed on between them, that, as Rosalind was the tallest, she should wear the dress of a young countryman, and Celia should be habited like a country lass, and that they should say they were brother and sister, and Rosalind said she would be called Ganymed, and Celia chose the name of Aliena. In this disguise, and taking their money and jewels to defray their expenses, they set out on their long travel; for the forest of Arden was a long way off, beyond the boundaries of the duke's dominions. We need not pause to describe the sufferings which they endured on the journey, but at once mention, that they at length reached the place of their destination, where they lost no time in purchasing the house and sheep of a shepherd, as well as in securing a servant to assist them; and being by this means so fortunately provided with a neat cottage, and well supplied with provisions, they agreed to stay here till they could learn in what part of the forest the duke dwelt.

Leaving the two ladies in disguise to the pursuit of their assumed occupation, we proceed to notice how, by a remarkable coincidence, Orlando, in whom they were so much interested, made his appearance amidst the sylvan scenes they had chosen for a retreat.

Orlando was the youngest son of Sir Rowland de Bois, who, when he died, left him (Orlando being then very young) to the care of his eldest brother Oliver, charging the latter on his blessing to give his brother a good education, and provide for him as became the dignity of their ancient house. Oliver proved an unworthy brother; and disregarding the commands of his dying father, he never put his brother to school, but kept him at home untaught and entirely neglected. But in his nature, and in the noble qualities of his mind, Orlando so much resembled his excellent father, that without any advantages of education, he seemed like a youth who had been bred with the utmost care: and Oliver so envied the fine person and dignified manners of his untutored bro-

ther, that at last he wished to destroy him; and to effect this he set on people to persuade him to wrestle with the famous wrestler, who, as has been before related, had killed so many men.

When, contrary to the wicked hopes he had formed, his brother proved victorious, his envy and malice knew no bounds, and he swore he would burn the chamber where Orlando slept. He was overheard making this vow by one that had been an old and faithful servant to their father, and who loved Orlando because he resembled Sir Rowland. This old man went out to meet him when he returned from the duke's palace, and when he saw Orlando, the peril his dear young master was in made him break out into many passionate exclamations. He told him how his wicked brother, envying the love all people bore him, and now hearing the fame he had gained by his victory in the duke's palace, intended to destroy him, by setting fire to his chamber that night; and, in conclusion, advised him to escape the danger he was in by instant flight; and knowing Orlando had no money, Adam (for that was the good old man's name) had brought out with him his own little hoard, and he said, "I have five hundred crowns, the thrifty hire I saved under your father, and laid by to be provision for me when my old limbs should become unfit for service; take that, and he that doth the ravens feed be comfort to my age! Here is the gold; all this I give to you; let me be your servant; though I look old, I will do the service of a younger man in all your business and necessities." "Oh, good old man!" said Orlando, "how well appears in you the constant service of the old world? You are not for the fashion of these times. We will go along together, and before your youthful wages are spent, I shall light upon some means for both our maintenance."

Together, then, this faithful servant and his loved master set out; and Orlando and Adam travelled on, uncertain what course to pursue, till they came to the forest of Arden, in which they wandered on, seeking some human habitation, till they were almost spent with hunger and fatigue. In this critical necessity, our young hero, after placing his venerable attendant beneath the shelter of some pleasant trees, set out in quest of food, and he happened to arrive at that part of the forest where the duke, along with his friends, were just going to eat their dinner, this royal duke being seated on the grass, under no other canopy than the shady covert of some large trees.

Orlando, whom hunger had made desperate, drew his sword, intending to take their meat by force, and said, "Forbear, and eat no more; I must have your food!" The duke asked him if distress had made him so bold, or if he were a rude despiser of good manners? On this Orlando said he was dying with hunger; and then the duke told him he was welcome to sit down and eat with them. Orlando hearing him speak so gently, put up his sword, and blushed with shame at the rude manner in which he had demanded their food. "Pardon me, I pray you," said he: "I thought that all things had been savage here, and therefore I put on the countenance of stern command; but whatever men you are, that in this desert, under the shade of melancholy boughs, lose and neglect the creeping hours of time; if ever you have looked on better days; if ever you have been where bells have knolled to church; if you have ever sate at any good man's feast; if ever from your eyelids you have wiped a tear, and know what it is to pity or be pitied, may gentle speeches now move you to do me human courtesy! Besides (he continued), there is a poor old man who has limped after me many a weary step in pure love, oppressed at once with two sad infirmities, age and hunger; till he be satisfied, I must not touch a bit." "Go, find him out, and bring him hither," said the duke; "we will forbear to eat till you return." During the absence of Orlando on this grateful errand, his conduct gave rise to a moralising discourse betwixt the duke and his associates. "Thou seest," observed the duke, "that we are not all alone unhappy: this wide and universal theatre presents more woeful pageants than the scene wherein we play." To this remark, Jacques, a shrewd and familiar observer of nature, answered in the following impassioned strain

All the world's a stage,

And all the men and women merely players:

They have their exits, and their entrances;

And one man in his time plays many parts,

His acts being seven ages. At first, the infant,

Mewling and puking in the nurse's arms;

And then, the whining schoolboy, with his satchel,

And shining morning face, creeping like snail

Unwillingly to school: And then, the lover;

Sighing like furnace, with a woeful ballad

Made to his mistress' eyebrow: Then, a soldier;

Full of strange oaths, and bearded like the pard,

Jealous in honour, sudden and quick in quarrel,

Seeking the bubble reputation

Even in the cannon's mouth: And then, the justice;

In fair round belly, with good capon lined,

With eyes severe, and beard of formal cut,

Full of wise saws and modern instances,

And so he plays his part: The sixth age shifts

Into the lean and slipshod pantaloon;

With spectacles on nose, and pouch on side;

His youthful hose well sav'd, a world too wide

For his shrunk shank; and his big manly voice,

Turning again toward childish treble, pipes

And whistles in his sound: Last scene of all,

That ends this strange eventful history,

Is second childishness, and mere oblivion;

Sans teeth, sans eyes, sans taste, sans every thing.

Orlando now returned with the wayward Adam, both being kindly received by the duke, who, when he found that the intrepid young man was the son of

* We quote this pleasing little story, in an abridged form, from the work entitled "Fables from Shakespeare, designed for the use of Young Persons, by Charles Lamb," of which an elegant pocket edition has just been published by Charles Tilt, London.

his old friend Sir Rowland de Bois, he at once took him under his protection.

Now that Orlando was a resident in the forest of Arden, he had an opportunity of indulging the passion he had formed for the fair Rosalind. Like a tender swain, he wandered in moody silence through the groves, and at every fitting opportunity carved the name of the mistress of his affections on the trees under which he reclined. This was a circumstance not unnoticed by Ganymed and Aliena. Being surprised to find the name Rosalind inscribed in so many places within their walks, they sought out the cause of what appeared so mysterious, and were not long in making the discovery that Orlando was the defacer of the woods. They now, in their disguised characters, endeavoured to cultivate an acquaintance with one in whom they were so deeply interested, and this they accomplished, and in such an adroit manner, that their real character remained unknown. Ganymed even went the length of affecting to represent the character of Rosalind, by way of drawing out the feelings of Orlando in a kind of mock courtship. Matters were in this agreeable state, when one morning, as Orlando was going to visit Ganymed, he saw a man lying asleep on the ground, while a large green snake had twisted itself about his neck. The snake, seeing Orlando approach, glided away among the bushes. Orlando went nearer, and then he discovered a lioness lie couching, with her head on the ground, with a cat-like watch. Horrified with the discovery, he looked in the man's face, and perceived that the sleeper who was exposed to this double peril, was his own brother Oliver, who had so cruelly used him, and had threatened to destroy him by fire; and he was almost tempted to leave him a prey to the hungry lioness; but brotherly affection and the gentleness of his nature, soon overcame his first anger against his brother; and drawing his sword, attacked the lioness, and slew her. While he was thus engaged, Oliver awoke, and perceiving that the brother whom he had so cruelly treated, was saving him from the fury of a wild beast at the risk of his own life, shame and remorse at once seized him, and he repented of his unworthy conduct, and besought with many tears his brother's pardon for the injuries he had done him. Orlando rejoiced to see him so penitent, and readily forgave him; they embraced each other; and from that hour Oliver loved Orlando with a true brotherly affection, though he had come to the forest bent on his destruction.

A wound which Orlando had received in the conflict having bled very much, he found himself in a weak condition, and therefore desired his brother to go and tell Ganymed, "whom," said Orlando, "I in sport do call my Rosalind," the accident which had befallen him. Thither then Oliver went, and told to Ganymed and Aliena how Orlando had saved his life; and when he had finished the story of Orlando's bravery, and his own providential escape, he owned to them that he was Orlando's brother, who had so cruelly used him; and then he told them of their reconciliation.

The sincere sorrow that Oliver expressed for his offences, made such a lively impression on the kind heart of Aliena, that she instantly felt an affection for him; and Oliver, observing how much she pitied the distress he told her he felt for his fault, he as suddenly fell in love with her. But while love was thus stealing into the hearts of Aliena and Oliver, he was no less busy with Ganymed, who, hearing of the danger Orlando had been in, and that he was wounded by the lioness, fainted; and when he recovered, he pretended that he had counterfeited the swoon in the imaginary character of Rosalind; this, however, appeared to Oliver an exceedingly doubtful point, and involved a mystery he could not readily solve. When at last he returned back to his brother, he had much news to tell him; for, besides the account of Ganymed's fainting at the hearing that Orlando was wounded, Oliver told him how he had fallen in love with the fair shepherdess Aliena, and that she had lent a favourable ear to his suit, even in this their first interview; and he talked to his brother, as of a thing almost settled, that he should marry Aliena, saying, that he so well loved her, that he would live here as a shepherd, and settle his estate and house at home upon Orlando.

"You have my consent," said Orlando. "Let your wedding be to-morrow, and I will invite the duke and his friends. Go and persuade your shepherdess to agree to this; she is now alone, for look, here comes her brother." Oliver went to Aliena; and Ganymed, whom Orlando had perceived approaching, came to inquire after the health of his wounded friend.

When Orlando and Ganymed began to talk over the sudden love which had taken place between Oliver and Aliena, Orlando said he had advised his brother to persuade his fair shepherdess to be married on the morrow, and then he added how much he could wish to be married on the same day to his Rosalind.

Ganymed, who well approved of this arrangement, said, that if Orlando really loved Rosalind as well as he professed to do, he should have his wish; for, on the morrow, he would engage to make Rosalind appear in her own person, and also that Rosalind should be willing to marry Orlando. This seemingly wonderful event, which, as Ganymed was the lady Rosalind, he could so easily perform, he pretended he would bring to pass, by the aid of magic, which, he said, he had learnt of an uncle, who was a famous magician.

The fond lover, Orlando, half believing and half

doubting what he heard, asked Ganymed if he spoke in sober meaning. "Indeed I do," said Ganymed; "therefore put on your best clothes, and bid the duke and your friends to your wedding; for, if you desire to be married to-morrow to Rosalind, she shall be here." The next morning, Oliver having obtained the consent of Aliena, they came into the presence of the duke, and with them also came Orlando.

They being all assembled to celebrate this double marriage, and as yet only one of the brides appearing, there was much of wondering and conjecture, but they mostly thought that Ganymed was making a jest of Orlando. The duke, hearing that it was his own daughter that was to be brought in this strange way, asked Orlando if he believed the shepherd-boy could really do what he had promised; and while Orlando was answering that he knew not what to think, Ganymed entered, and asked the duke, if he brought his daughter, whether he would consent to her marriage with Orlando. "That I would," said the duke, "if I had kingdoms to give with her." Ganymed then said to Orlando, "And you say you will marry her if I bring her here?" "That I would," said Orlando, "if I were king of many kingdoms."

Ganymed and Aliena then went out together, and the former, throwing off her male attire, and being once more dressed in woman's apparel, quickly became Rosalind without the power of magic; and Aliena, changing her country garb for her own rich clothes, was with a little trouble transformed into the lady Celia. A cordial explanation now took place among the parties, which afforded no small pleasure to the duke, who forthwith ratified the consent he had already given to the marriage of his daughter; and so Orlando and Rosalind, Oliver and Celia, were married at the same time. And though their wedding could not be celebrated in this wild forest with any of the parade or splendour usual on such occasions, yet a happier wedding-day was never passed; and while they were eating their venison under the cool shade of the pleasant trees, as if nothing should be wanting to complete the felicity of this good duke and the true lovers, an unexpected messenger arrived to tell the duke the joyful news, that his dukedom was restored to him.

The usurper, enraged at the flight of his daughter Celia, and hearing that every day men of great worth resorted to the forest of Arden to join the lawful duke in his exile, much envying that his brother should be so highly respected in his adversity, put himself at the head of a large force, and advanced towards the forest, intending to seize his brother, and put him, with all his faithful followers, to the sword; but, by a strange turn of affairs, this vicious person was converted from his evil intention; for, just as he entered the skirts of the wild forest, he was met by an old religious man, a hermit, with whom he had much talk, and who in the end completely turned his heart from his wicked design. Thenceforward he became a true penitent, and resolved, relinquishing his unjust dominion, to spend the remainder of his days in a religious house. The first act of his newly-conceived penitence was to send a messenger to his brother, to offer to restore to him his dukedom, which he had usurped so long, and with it the lands and revenues of his friends, the faithful followers of his adversity. This joyful news, as unexpected as it was welcome, came opportunely to heighten the festivity and rejoicings at the wedding of the princes.

The duke had now an opportunity of rewarding those true friends who had staid with him in his banishment; and these worthy followers, though they had patiently shared his adverse fortune, were very well pleased to return in peace and prosperity to their former homes and possessions.

EIDER FOWLING.

THE rocks and sea-coasts of Norway, the rugged steep and barren precipices of the Shetland, Orkney, and Feroe islands, and the wild scenery of the Hebrides, are the abodes of numerous tribes of aquatic birds, as puffins, herons, cormorants, and eider fowl. The simple inhabitants of some of these secluded spots depend in a great measure upon these creatures for their food and clothing. The flesh of some is eaten when fresh, and some is salted for keeping: the eggs are esteemed excellent food, though much too strong in their taste to be relished by persons unaccustomed to such delicacies: the skins of the eider ducks form under-clothing, which is proof against very severe cold; and, without any very material injury to the birds, a vast quantity of the finest down is collected from them annually. This invaluable substance is so firm and elastic, that a quantity which, when compressed, might be covered by the two hands, will serve to stuff a quilt or coverlet, which, together with extreme lightness, possesses more warmth than the finest blanket. The importance of such a defence in the inhospitable climate of these exposed regions, may be well imagined. Accordingly, one of the chief employments of the inhabitants is the collection of these indispensable articles; an occupation, in the pursuit of which the adventurous fowlers are often exposed to dangers, the bare idea of which would seem enough

to deter the most courageous from the attempt, had not long practice rendered them almost insensible to fear. We shall give a short account of the method pursued on these occasions.

On the coast of Norway there are many low and flat islands, upon which the birds, during their breeding season, lay their eggs in great abundance: these the fowler approaches in his boat; leaving it moored to the rocks, he quietly examines the nests, which are made on the ground, constructed of sea-weeds, and lined with the finest down, which the female plucks from her own body. The eggs are generally four in number, of a pale green colour, and somewhat longer than a common duck's egg. With great caution and gentleness, the fowler removes the female from the nest, and takes possession of the superfluous down and eggs, being careful, however, to leave one behind lest the nest should be deserted. The patient bird endures this robbery with the greatest resignation, and immediately commences the reparation of her loss, by laying more eggs, and covering them with fresh down; in which latter office her faithful mate bears a part, and yields up his own plumage for the defence of their yet unhatched progeny. This operation is often repeated more than once upon the same nest. It is asserted, that, although the birds will bear quietly this treatment from the hands of those to whom they are accustomed, the appearance of a stranger is by no means acceptable, and that they testify their displeasure at the work of destruction by loud and fearful screams. This singular fact may perhaps be accounted for by the great kindness with which the natives treat them; so great indeed, that in Iceland, they have been almost rendered tame, and will often build their nests close to the houses. Their quiet and peaceable dispositions are also manifested by the circumstance, that two females will sometimes lay their eggs in the same nest, in which case they always agree remarkably well.

The ease and facility, however, with which the plundering of these nests is effected, are remarkably contrasted with the extreme danger to which the same occupation is exposed in other parts. The most precipitous and inaccessible rocks are often the chosen abodes of these winged creatures, where they remain in apparent security, seemingly far removed from man's rapacious hand. But who shall say what difficulties are so great that patience and courage may not overcome them? The bold adventurer, inured to toil, with sinews well strung by constant labour, and animated by a spirit of dauntless courage, climbs the most rugged steep, surveys with coolness the most frightful precipices, and, trusting himself to ledges of rock scarcely large enough for the foot to rest on, loads himself with the hard earned spoil, and returns to the bottom with as much indifference as ordinary men would descend a ladder.

The Holm of Noss, a vast rock separated by some violent convulsion of nature from the island of the same name (one of the Shetland group), presents remarkable difficulties to the bird-catchers. Its sides are extremely precipitous, its distance from the mainland is about sixteen fathoms, and the gulph between is occupied by a raging sea—yet have all these been overcome. A kind of bridge of ropes is thrown across, by which the fowler, seated in a cradle, is drawn over, and commences his operations. The original formation of this bridge, if such it may be called, is somewhat remarkable. The rock had been long inaccessible, when at last an adventurer, bolder or more skillful than the rest, having landed at the base, contrived to scramble his way to the summit, after encountering incredible difficulties: his companions threw across to him a strong rope, which he made fast to several stakes previously driven firmly into the ground, and the same was done by them on the opposite side; to this rope a basket or cradle was then attached, which, by means of cords fastened at either end, might be drawn backwards or forwards. The end of the story is truly tragical. Emboldened by his success, instead of returning by the means of conveyance he had thus provided, the unfortunate man determined to descend the rock where he had come up; but the task was too difficult even for his practised foot; one false step, and all was over; his mangled body at the foot of the rock too plainly attested the madness of the attempt.

But not always can even these means be had recourse to; it is often necessary to descend from the cloud-capped summit down the face of the naked precipice, to seek for nests hidden in the fissures of the stone. The reckless daring exhibited by the islanders on these occasions, has called forth the admiration and wonder of all who have had an opportunity of witnessing them. We subjoin the account given by Sir G. Mackenzie, of the method which the inhabitants of the Feroe islands pursue in their search for puffins. "When the rocks are so high and smooth as to render it impossible for the fowlers to ascend, they are let down by means of a rope from above. To prevent the rope from being cut, a piece of wood is placed at the verge of the precipice. By means of a small lixe, the fowler makes signals to those above, and they let him down or pull him up accordingly. When he reaches a shelf of the rock where the birds have their nest, he unties himself, and proceeds to take them. Sometimes he places himself on a projecting rock, and,

using his net with great adroitness, he catches the birds as they fly past him—and this they call veining. This mode of catching birds is even practised while the fowlers are suspended. When a projection of rock is between the fowler and the place where the birds are, he swings himself from the rock so far that he turns round the projection. In this, great address and courage are requisite, as well as in swinging into a cavern. When he cannot, with the help of his pole, swing far enough, he lets down a line to people stationed in a boat below, who swing him by means of it as far as is necessary to enable him to gain a safe place to stand upon. Besides being exposed to the risk of the rope breaking, the fowler is frequently in danger of being crushed by pieces of the rock falling down upon him. The same method is pursued in the other islands. The ropes employed are of two sorts—one made of hides, the other of hair of cows' tails—the former are most esteemed; they have the advantage of ancient usage to recommend them, and they are, besides, less liable to be worn away by the sharp edges of the rock. The mode of constructing them is as follows:—A hide of a sheep, and one of a cow, are cut into slips, the latter being the broader; each slip of sheep's hide is then plaited to one of cows', and two of these compound slips are then twisted together, so as to form a rope of about three inches in circumference. The length of these ropes varies from ninety to about two hundred feet, and they are sold at thirteen-pence a fathom. So highly are they valued, that at St Kilda, a single rope forms a girl's marriage portion. In this island, the most westerly of the Hebrides, a mere speck of land in the wide waters of the Atlantic, old and young alike engage in the same hazardous pursuit. Accustomed from infancy to creep to the extremest verge of the precipice, dangers which, to the unpractised, appear most appalling, only serve to afford them amusement. A modern traveller informs us that he has seen very young children creep over the edge of a tremendous cliff, thirteen hundred feet high, formed by the termination of Conachar, the loftiest eminence in the island, and considered to be the highest precipice in Britain, and coolly collecting the eggs or birds by means of a slender pole like a fishing-rod, furnished at the end with a noose of cow hair, stiffened by the feathers of a solan goose. The same writer witnessed the extraordinary feats of a bird-catcher, who, while supported by one companion alone, with whom he was conversing carelessly, contrived to catch four birds, and, burthened with two in each hand, still held fast by the rope, and, striking his foot against the rock, throw himself out from the precipice, and, returning with a bound, would again start out, capering and shouting, and playing all manner of tricks. When we consider that one false step of the man above, one momentary yielding of his strength, would inevitably prove fatal to both, we cannot but feel the greatest astonishment at their presence of mind. Accidents, however, though extremely rare, do sometimes occur, and those of the most frightful nature, of which the following may serve as examples:—

It is by no means uncommon for fowlers to proceed alone on these excursions; on such occasions they fasten the rope to a stake driven into the ground above, and thus descend. It was upon one of these solitary expeditions that the following occurred: A bird-catcher left his home one morning to pursue his usual occupation, but alone; having secured his rope to the summit of the cliff, he let himself gradually down, and reaching the spot where the rock overhung a ledge, on which he expected to reap an ample harvest, he dexterously swung himself forwards, and gained the resting-place. As he expected, he here found a number of nests, and, in his ardour forgetting the usual precaution of fastening the rope round his body while in the act of plunging a nest, the cord slipped from his grasp, and, after swinging backwards and forwards for some time, without coming within reach, at length settled some feet from the spot where he stood. For a moment he stood aghast, uncertain how to act; the sudden blow almost deprived him of the power of thinking; gradually, however, he recovered the use of his faculties, and looked anxiously around for means of escape. Fearful in truth was the prospect: the heavy mass of rock above, smooth as if chiselled by the mason's hand, offered no crevices to which the most tenacious grasp might cling: many hundred feet below, the raging waters burst with terrific noise upon the pointed rocks; while the depth to which he had descended, the solitude of the spot, and the roar of the tumultuous waters, altogether precluded the possibility of making himself heard, and summoning assistance to rescue him from his dreadful situation. One chance alone remained, and that a desperate one; by a bold leap he might regain the rope—it was an awful hazard; he failed, instant destruction must be the result; but, though slower in his present state, was no less brave; his resolution was taken; breathing a short and energetic prayer, he summoned all his strength, and fearlessly sprung forward. He lived to tell the tale, for the rope was caught, and the summit gained safely.

Such are the usual methods pursued for capturing birds when they build near the summit of the highest rocks, and such the dangers to which the hunter is exposed. But similar risks are run in taking those which have their haunts below. For this purpose, the expedition sets out in a boat, and having

the most daring of their number fastens a rope round his waist, and taking in his hand a long pole, furnished with an iron hook at one end, either climbs up the rock, or is thrust upwards by his companions, until he can find a resting-place sufficiently large for their purpose. Having reached this spot, he lowers the rope, and hauls up one of the boat's crew; the others are then raised in the same manner; and this process of climbing and hauling is repeated as often as necessary, until they reach the spots most frequented by the birds. The fowlers then separate, and distribute themselves over the face of the rock, acting, however, for the most part in pairs, each being provided with a rope and fowling-staff. For the sake of mutual security, two frequently connect themselves together by their ropes, and whenever the nests are below the ledges on which they stand, one permits himself to be lowered down by the other, until he can reach them. In this laborious occupation they often spend many days together, throwing the booty they have collected into the boats below, and spending the nights in the crevices of the rocks, being at the same time not unfrequently but ill supplied with provisions.

Another plan sometimes adopted in these islands is that of setting gins or nooses over night, in places most frequented by the birds; these are examined next morning, and often afford a large supply. It was upon one of these occasions that the following occurred:—A bird-catcher of St Kilda had been fixing some traps upon a ledge, elevated about 150 feet above the level of the sea, and was moving forwards for the purpose of regaining his rope, when, unfortunately, his foot caught in one of the nooses, and before he was aware of the fact, tripped himself, and fell over the edge of the precipice. There he hung, suspended by one leg, and with a full view of the boiling surf below him. In vain he wrenched his body round, and strove to grasp the edge from which he had fallen: all his exertions were to no purpose; the bare stone afforded nothing to his grasp, and his strength became rapidly exhausted. He shouted and screamed, till the rocks re-echoed with his clamour, but none was at hand to bear him succour; the shades of night were fast closing in, and he was obliged to resign himself patiently to his fate, hoping that the morning might bring some assistance. In this perilous situation he passed the livelong night. Pierced with cold, suffering the severest agony, the weight of his whole body being supported by one limb alone, and momentarily expecting the noose to give way and precipitate him headlong into the angry waters, it seemed as if the hours would never end. But morning came at last, and, as surrounding objects gradually emerged from the darkness which had concealed them, his eyes wandered anxiously around in search of some sign of life. Who may describe the pleasure that thrilled through his bosom, as first he distinctly recognised the form of a companion? The sight gave new vigour to his frame; he summoned all his strength, and uttered a loud cry for help. His call was heard, and no time was lost in relieving him from his dreadful situation.

We who have been brought up in comparative ease and luxury, can scarcely picture to ourselves a more wretched lot than that of these poor islanders, compelled to undergo such toils, and expose themselves to so great dangers, for acquiring the mere necessities of life; yet they are a happy race of men, and would be loath to exchange this kind of existence, with all its excitement and pleasures, for the more quiet lives and less spirit-stirring employments of the inhabitants of cities.

WERNER AND HUTTON.

It is generally known that the interior mass of the earth appears, from all the researches which can be made into it, to consist of hard rock, chiefly composed of the flinty substance called silica; that around this there seems to have been formed, in the course of many successive ages, a comparatively thin crust of softer rocks, disposed in layers or strata, of different kinds, as sandstone, limestone, coal, and chalk; and that, during and since the deposition of the latter class of rocks, vast masses of the former appear to have been thrown upwards, so as to toss the compacted strata into irregular fragments, at all degrees of inclination, and form huge granitic mountains, far-towering above the general level of the stratified rocks, many parts of which have apparently been swept away at a subsequent period by running water. By what influences the construction of the great central mass, the deposition of the crust, and the subsequent derangements, were brought about, was one of the first questions which attracted attention after geology became a science. Two great men, almost the first who considered the subject in a scientific spirit, took opposite views of the operating agents, one attributing all the effects to water, and the other setting up fire as the principal cause; and the controversy, about forty years ago, agitated society with a violence which was scarcely exceeded by the most interesting questions which then engaged the attention of the political world. The thunders of the debate have long since rolled away; but the words *Wernerian* and *Huttonian theories* are still occasionally mentioned by the old, as if the young

necessarily understood what was meant, while in truth the rising generation have but an imperfect notion, if any, of what is implied by these terms. To remedy this ignorance in some degree, we would beg attention to the following brief outline of the lives and theories of Werner and Hutton.

Abraham Gottlob Werner was born on the 25th of September 1750, at Wehraw on the Queiss, in Upper Lusatia. The district which gave him birth was a mining one, and his father was director of a forge, so that from infancy he was placed in the very centre of the objects and scenes which were to be the source of his fame and his utility. Scarcely was he taken from his mother's breast before his love, or rather passion, for order displayed itself, in his handling of the play-things and mineral toys which his father gave to him. These he was for ever breaking, examining, and grouping. The profession of a miner is held in that country of such importance, that a regular course of study, and a licence, are necessary to those who embrace it; and this being the intention with regard to Werner, he attended the lectures on metallurgy at the school of Freyberg, and subsequently those on jurisprudence at Leipzig.

At the age of twenty-four, he published his first work, a *Treatise on the External Characters of Minerals*. The object of it was to establish a distinct nomenclature in mineralogy, the apparent properties of every mineral being designated in the book by an appropriate and expressive term. This was a service to the science, of the same character and value as that conferred by Linnaeus on botany, and it showed the prevailing bent of Werner's mind to classification and method. He was rewarded in the following year by an appointment to the office of Professor and Inspector of the Cabinets of Freyberg. This was bestowed on him that he might devote himself without restraint to his favourite studies, and the desired object was effected. All his efforts were henceforth directed to mineralogy; but this science, which properly aims only at a characteristic classification of parts of the earth's substance, was in his hands extended till it included an immense circuit of knowledge and philosophy.

Werner had already given a nomenclature to his beloved science, and his next object was to elevate it into a perfect and beautiful system. The history of the arrangement of minerals on the globe, or what he termed *Geognosy*—Knowledge of the Earth—was the third point of view in which he regarded them; in other words, he constructed his systematic view of the arrangement of the earth, as regards its crust. This we shall present in the language of Baron Cuvier.

"The earth is composed of mineral masses; and modern observers have ascertained that these masses are not distributed at random. Pallas, in his laborious journeys to the extremities of Asia, had remarked that their superposition was capable of being referred to fundamental laws; and the same thing was confirmed by the observations of Saussure and De Luc, while traversing, in numerous directions, the most elevated mountain-ranges in Europe. Without quitting his small province, Werner acquired the most intimate acquaintance with these laws, and could read in them the history of all the revolutions from which they had resulted. Following each bed in the order of its continuity, without allowing himself to be bewildered by rents and shiftings, or by the crests and other summits which rise above them, he in some measure determined their age, and the age of all the accessory matters which mingle with their principal substances.

The different fluids which have surrounded the globe, the changes in composition which they have undergone, and the violent commotions by which each change has been accompanied, were all legible to his eyes on the monuments which they have left behind them.

An universal and tranquil ocean deposits in large masses the primitive rocks, which are strongly crystallised, and have silica for their predominating ingredient. Granite forms the base of the whole. This succeeds gneiss, which is nothing more than granite beginning to assume a slaty structure. By degrees argill begins to predominate. Schists of different kinds appear; but in proportion as the purity of the precipitations becomes changed, the distinctness of the crystalline grain diminishes. Serpentine, porphyries, and traps, succeed, in which the grain is less distinctly formed, although a siliceous nature begins to resume its purity. Internal agitation in the water destroys a portion of these primary deposits; and their debris forms new rocks, united by a cement. It is in the midst of these commotions that life first begins to appear. Carbon, the first of these products, now shows itself. Lime, which associated with the primitive rocks, becomes more and more abundant; and rich deposits of sea salt, one day to be explored by man, fill large cavities. The waters, again becoming tranquil, but having their contents changed, deposit beds less thick, and more varied, in which the remains of living bodies are successively accumulated, in an order not less determinate than that of the rocks which contain them. At last, the final recession of the waters spreads over the continent immense alluvial collections of moveable substances, which form the earliest seats of vegetation, of culture, and of social life.

Metals, like rocks, have had their epochs and their successions. The last of the primitive, and the first of the secondary rocks, have received them abundantly. They become rare, however, in deposits of

more recent formation. They are usually distributed in particular situations, in those veins which seem to be produced by rents in the rocky masses, and filled after their formation; but they are by no means of equal age. The last formed are known by their veins intersecting those of earlier date, and not being themselves intersected. Tin is the oldest of the whole; silver and copper the most modern. Gold and iron, those two masters of the world, seem to have been deposited in the bowels of the earth at all the periods of its formation; but at each period iron appears under different forms, and we can assign the age of its different mines."

While the geologist of Freyberg pursued the studies by which he satisfied himself of these sublime results, his name had become known far and wide over the civilised world. This was not owing to the number or greatness of his written works; so far was this from being the case, that without other roads to fame and utility, his genius might have escaped the world's knowledge; for writing was a task he scarcely ever could be brought to engage in. But his school became universally celebrated; pupils from all lands came to imbibe knowledge from his lips; and to these oral communications to his hearers, the chief promulgation of his views is owing. Humboldt, Von Buch, Jameson of Edinburgh, and many other illustrious names, bow to Werner as their teacher and master, and to him they ascribe all the honours that resulted from their labours. Never, perhaps, did teacher enjoy in so high a degree the respect, love, and admiration of pupils, and never did teacher so well deserve them. His teaching was more like that of Plato and Socrates, than the dry prelections of modern institutions. His time and strength were devoted to his pupils; his door and his table open to them; his purse and his counsel ever at their command. Such was also the wonderful interest and comprehensiveness of his conversational discourses, that strangers, in many instances, who came to visit him, expecting to find merely a great mineralogist, were tempted, after listening to him for some time, to regard him as an inspired madman; for his discussions appeared to range through all subjects, tactics, politics, and medicine, as much as mineralogy. But by degrees the light broke on their minds, and they began to think that, if there was madness, it had method in it. Perhaps the relations of his favourite sciences were traced too far by Werner, though the strong bent of his mind rendered such a tendency natural, and his great genius made it deeply interesting. For example, he showed how deeply the progress of the fine arts was affected by the character of the countries where they flourished. The sculptors of Greece could not have left their splendid works without the durable marble of Paria; the architectural monuments of Michael Angelo's skill could not have been constructed at Paria, for that city possesses not the beautiful travertine of Rome, in which they are wrought. The vast sandy plains of Tartary prevented its inhabitants from being any thing but wandering shepherds. In this manner did Werner delight to trace the bearings of his science on the habits and condition of men, and these philosophical and comprehensive views were the grounds of the attraction that gathered around him so many admiring followers.

Werner was simple and plain in his manners, and in some points a little tinged with eccentricity. Absorbed in lofty contemplations, or in the pleasures of friendly converse, he had neither time nor wish to know much of the doings of the great world. He read none of the public journals, and was thus ignorant alike of the respect or of the disputes which his views excited. When the Institute of France gave him a place among its foreign associates, an honour which has been desired by the great men of all countries, the geologist of Freyberg made the body no reply, and, perhaps (as Baron Cuvier hints, though we do not see how it could well happen), was ignorant that such an honour had been paid to him.

The misfortunes of Saxony and of his prince made unhappily too deep an impression on the mind of Werner. He could not bear to see the distresses of the master and the country beloved, and fell ill with such a complication of diseases as no care could overcome. On the 30th of June 1817, he died in the arms of his sister at Dresden, whither he had repaired in the hope of procuring some alleviation of his sufferings—a hope, unfortunately, vain.

From this brilliant German we turn to a native of our own country—the sober, profound Hutton—a man so different from his contemporary and rival, that we might almost suppose nature to have designed, in their creation, to show by what various minds she can bring forth results nearly similar.

James Hutton was born at Edinburgh, on the 3d of June 1726, and was thus by twenty-four years the senior of Werner. The father of Hutton was a respectable merchant, who held the place of city treasurer, but died while his son was very young. Mrs Hutton, on whom the care of James's education necessarily devolved, appears to have been a superior woman, and well qualified for the discharge of this duty. She determined to give her son all the advantages of a liberal education, and placed him accordingly in succession at the High School and University. In the latter institution, the most eminent professor at the period was Maclaurin; but the mathematical sciences, which he taught, were less cultivated by young Hutton than any other. The prelections of the logic

professor, Dr Stevenson, seem to have had much more influence in determining the bias of the young philosopher's studies; and this, curiously enough, considering the quarter from which the excitement came, was to the subject of chemistry, not of logic. In illustration of some general doctrine, Dr Stevenson happened to mention, that a junction of two acids was necessary for the solution of gold, though either of the two, singly, acted upon the baser metals. This fact struck the mind of Hutton forcibly, and led him to examine works on chemistry for further information on the subject. The best work which he could at the time procure was Harris's Lexicon, and "from the imperfect sketch," says Professor Playfair, "contained in that dictionary, he derived his first knowledge of chemistry, his love for which never forsook him afterwards, and was in truth the propensity which decided the whole course and complexion of his future life."

Though his taste and capacity for instruction were sufficiently conspicuous even at this early period, his friends wished him to engage in business as a Writer to the Signet. To gratify their wishes he left his more congenial studies, and was placed, at the age of sixteen, under Mr George Chalmers, a respectable member of the legal profession. Here the bent of Hutton's genius was soon perceived by his master, who found the youth often employed in amusing his fellow-apprentices with chemical experiments, in place of copying deeds. Mr Chalmers, with much good sense and kindness, recommended Hutton to apply to some employment more suited to his disposition, and released him from the obligations they had mutually entered into. As the study most nearly allied to his favourite chemistry, the medical profession was that now chosen by Hutton, and from 1744 till 1747, he attended a course of instruction in that science, at the university.

At that time foreign medical degrees and honours were much more valued, and perhaps justly, than those conferred by the home schools, and almost every physician went abroad to complete his education. Hutton's pecuniary circumstances permitted this without inconvenience (for he had a considerable property in Berwickshire); and accordingly, in 1747, he went to Paris, where he resided for two years. He returned from that city by the way of the Low Countries, and took the degree of doctor of medicine at Leyden.

On his return to Britain he remained for some time in London; and while there, the difficulties in the way of attaining to a distinguished and comfortable position in the medical profession, seem to have been strongly suggested to his mind. In the end, he resolved to devote himself to the cultivation of his own property, and set out for Norfolk, in order to acquire the requisite skill in farming. About this period also, he connected himself with an establishment for extracting sal ammoniac from coal-soot. The active manager of this was Mr John Davie, an early friend of Hutton, and with whom he had formerly prosecuted some experiments which had led to the idea of the manufacture. This connection was never broken up during Hutton's life.

During his residence in Norfolk, Hutton made many journeys on foot into different parts of England, and we learn from a letter to Sir John Hall of Dunghas, that he became "very fond of studying the surface of the earth, and was looking with anxious curiosity into every pit, or ditch, or bed of a river, that fell in his way." He spoke always in after days of his stay in Norfolk, as one of the pleasant passages of his life; and such was the plainness and simplicity of his own character, that to those with whom he associated, the intimacy was equally agreeable. From Norfolk he set out on an agricultural tour through Flanders and Brabant, on returning from which he came to Scotland, and settled on his Berwickshire farm.

From this period up till the year 1768, he passed his time chiefly at home, and was instrumental in introducing into the country such agricultural improvements as he had picked up in the course of his travels and studies. He also, in the year 1764, made an excursion to the north of Scotland, in company with Commissioner, afterwards Sir George Clerk. In this journey, Dr Hutton's chief object was mineralogy, or rather geology, which he was now studying with great attention. In the year just mentioned, availing himself of an advantageous opportunity of letting his farm, he left Berwickshire, and settled permanently in Edinburgh. A few years before, he had openly joined his name to that of Mr Davie in the sal ammoniac manufacture formerly alluded to; and though his friend still continued the acting manager, Dr Hutton now joined him more than formerly, in the cares of the copartnership. The remainder of his time was devoted, during the whole of the after-part of his life, to scientific pursuits. Among the friends who had long known his genius and his worth, and whose society he now freely and constantly enjoyed, were Dr Black, Adam Ferguson, Mr Clerk of Eldin, and other eminent men, who then adorned the Scottish metropolis.

Though his acquirements and abilities could not be hid in the society of these discerning spirits, it was long ere he gave, to the world generally, any written proof of his possession of them. For many years, it is true, he was understood to have in his desk the memorials and fruits of his geological studies, but it was the character of his unassuming mind to take much more delight in the contemplation of truth, than to hunt eagerly after the praise of having discovered it. A

pamphlet on the subject of Coal was his first publication, and it fulfilled the useful purpose of serving the coal-traders and proprietors, and consequently the coal-consumers of Scotland, from an impost, which, from a misunderstanding of the subject, would otherwise have all probability never been levied. In 1774, in prosecution of his favourite studies, he made a tour through part of England and Wales, in company, for some portion of the journey, with his friend the illustrious James Watt. From observations of the Cheshire mines, and of the other interesting spots which he visited, Dr Hutton drew many conclusions favourable to, and, in the eyes of his followers, probative of, particular views.

The institution of the Royal Society of Edinburgh in 1783, had the good effect of inducing Hutton to before the world the fruits of his long and well-matured observations. Like his great rival Werner, he was averse to written composition, and, indeed, did not shine in it. Possibly in some degree for this reason, his Theory of the Earth did not excite at first a very general attention, though Dr Black, and other of his eminent friends, were fully sensible of its originality and merits, and many of them concurred in their views. Dr Hutton's first improvement on preceding theories was, to discard all speculations regarding the first origin of things: the form alone of the material world, and the manner and means by which it assumed this form, were justly considered by him as the high points to which the inquiries of sound philosophy and science could be directed. Assuming, then, the existence of the matter of the earth, Dr Hutton proceeded to mark, that the form in which it existed, previously to being put into its present condition, must have been that of an older inhabited world; in short, that the present world was formed out of the wreck of a preceding one. This is the first general fact on which the geologist bases his theory, and, according to Hutton, it is borne out by the general appearance and state of the earth's crust. Hutton then goes on to pronounce heat to be the agent in effecting the change. The present rocks, with the exception of such as are not stratified, having all existed in the form of loose materials collected at the bottom of the sea, must have been consolidated, and converted into stone by virtue of some very powerful and general cause. It was not new to describe subterraneous heat to be that cause, but there was an objection to the theory which was never removed before Hutton applied his genius to the subject. The objection was, that heat volatilises many bodies which, it is by this theory described as consolidating. This difficulty was removed by the supposition that it acted under compression, under the great superincumbent weight of waters, which forced substances to remain united, that would have been dissipated and even consumed in ordinary circumstances. The stratified rocks, being originally horizontal, are now found at all degrees of inclination, and often even perpendicular; they are frequently many thousand feet above the surface of the sea, at the bottom of which they formerly were placed; and they are broken and raised in all directions. What cause, argues Hutton, could produce this, but the same which produces the earthquakes and the volcano? Heat, then, first consolidated the bodies under its action, and subsequently elevated them by its expansive power. The metallic veins, those of porphyry, granite, and others presenting more or less crystallised forms, are, according to Hutton, of posterior formation, and were injected through the fissures and openings of the rocks of the first formation. These veins were, he supposes, melted by heat, and none of them, he says, contain organic remains. Thus, in the consolidation and elevation of the stratified rocks, and in the fusion and injection through their fissures of the unstratified rocks, we have Dr Hutton's theory of the formation of the earth's crust.

The causes of the preceding world's decay he proposes to be perfectly visible and in continual operation in the present. From the shore of the sea to the top of the highest mountain, there is a constant separation and wasting of the superficies, and this is carried down perpetually, and deposited by the rivers in the sea. And this is, according to the theory, the course and manner of the decay of preceding continents, in consequence of natural laws ceaselessly acting.

We must be brief in our further notice of Hutton and his labours. After the promulgation of his system, he continued throughout the rest of his life, answering objections and collecting additional evidence in support of it. His days, at the same time, were spent in the most delightful society, in which he was honoured and beloved. He made excursions to the north, west, and south of Scotland at various periods, and likewise to the Isle of Man, the fruits of which journeys were all communicated to the world, or among his papers. In the winter of the year 1796, he was seized with an attack of an acute disease which had formerly annoyed him; and on the 26th of March, before his attendant friend and surgeon Mr Russell could reach his bedside, this eminent philosopher was released for ever from earthly cares.

We shall make no further remarks on the views of Hutton, as compared with those of Werner, than that natural and obvious one, that there are many peculiarities visible in the earth's superficies which are explained by the one; while to the other, almost equal number of phenomena seem with more propriety referable. Indeed, the great majority of scientific

are now disposed to give full weight to the action of both causes; though the true Wernerian still considers the power of heat as only a sort of accidental auxiliary, while the Huttonian regards in the same light the action of water.

THE PRESENT STATE OF SCOTTISH PRISONS.

Report of the Inspector of Prisons in Scotland, ordered by the House of Commons to be printed, has just been transmitted to us, and we take the earliest opportunity of laying a few gleanings from it before our readers, with the view of bringing forcibly before the public the present very defective condition of our prisons, and of pointing out what is required to be done for their improvement. The inspection was made by Mr. Frederick Hill, and took place in the winter of 1855-6.

The first and most conspicuous evil in the arrangement of the prisons is the want of the means of separating prisoners from prisoners, and of the means of preventing intercourse from without. Upon this the inspector remarks:—"The celebrated bridewell of Glasgow, incomparably the best conducted prison in Scotland, affords an exception to this evil, as will be seen by reference to the report on that prison; and in some other prisons the evil exists to a comparatively small extent; but in the generality of the Scottish prisons this evil of corrupt association is in full force, and is not mitigated even by classification. Thus, in the jail at Perth I found twenty-one prisoners, of every variety of character and offence, herding together in one day-room; and at Inverness I found in the same cell, passing all their time together, both by day and night, two men, one of whom had committed some common theft only, while the other had murdered his wife. In this prison even the separation of males from females is sometimes found impossible, owing to the crowded state of the prison when the circuit courts are held. At other places, too, the mixture of the sexes exists in different degrees. Communication with persons outside the prison is carried on in many of the Scottish prisons to a great extent. At the jail of Brechin, tools to assist the prisoners in escape are sometimes handed in at the window; and a prisoner confined in the Elgin jail, some time ago, also obtained a supply of tools, by making a cord with his blankets, and letting it down into the market-place, which is overlooked by the windows of the prison. In like manner, the prisoners in the Banff jail are occasionally seen hauling up packages from a yard below, which is open to the public; and at these and several other prisons the prisoners succeed in obtaining supplies of whisky and other improper food from without. Again, some prisons, among others those of Arbroath, Perth, and Ayr (though at the latter, arrangements are now in progress for effecting a change), are quite nuisances to the neighbourhood, owing to the profane and ribald language which the prisoners address to persons on the outside."

The second evil in our prison system is the want of employment, and of a provision for instructing the prisoner in a trade, or other means of earning an honest livelihood, on leaving prison. "In the great majority of the prisons (says the inspector) the prisoners pass their time in continued and complete idleness; there are, however, some honourable exceptions to this rule. In these the Glasgow bridewell is the chief, though such useful labour is performed also at the bridewells of Edinburgh and Aberdeen. Employment has also been introduced at Greenock, and at a small bridewell at Perth, and arrangements are now making for introducing it into the jail at Ayr; and it probably exists also at some prisons which I have not yet visited. Most of the prisoners who enter the Glasgow bridewell, and who are committed for a sufficiently long time to render it possible to teach them a trade, and to train them in tolerably good habits (if the prisoner is young, this can generally be effected in about twelve months), leave the prison quite able to earn an honest livelihood, and very seldom return to jail. The governor of the bridewell has, indeed, personal knowledge of many who are now living in a reputable manner, and who were once inmates of the bridewell. He says he has no difficulty in procuring situations for prisoners on their leaving the bridewell, provided they can express a favourable opinion of their conduct, and the improvement that has taken place in them; which he is almost always able conscientiously to do, and provided they remain a sufficient length of time in the first instance. By far the greater portion of the prisoners, however, are committed for periods of one or two months only, which is of course quite insufficient for any great and permanent effect to be brought." It also appears, that, in consequence of the early locking up in cells for the night, prisoners some of the jails remain fifteen and sixteen hours in bed. On the enervating effects of this abuse of rest and sleep, and the slothful habit it tends to create, it is unnecessary to dwell.

The third evil in the arrangements is the want of moral, moral, and religious instruction. The mass of criminals committed are young persons in a state of utter ignorance—beings devoid of knowledge, and without any sentiment of ambition for learning. If they enter into confinement in an un instructed condition, they seldom improve their capacities while undergoing punishment. "In very many of the prisons

(continues the inspector) no instruction is afforded; and even at the Glasgow bridewell, where, upon the whole, the instruction rendered appears to be most efficient, the amount given is very small. Whenever I have been able to obtain trustworthy information relative to the mental condition of the prisoners, it has almost always gone to show that they are very ignorant. Nearly all whom I have consulted on this point, among the governors and chaplains of the prisons, the sheriffs-substitute and the procurators-fiscal, are agreed in this opinion. The returns of the number of prisoners able to read and write are often very misleading, inasmuch as they generally include those who can do no more than read a small quantity of matter, of which they have become master by continued repetition, and who are just able to sign their names, but who, if tried upon new ground, stumble on with such difficulty as to show that the operation is anything rather than one of ease and pleasure, though this is of course essential, in almost all cases, to the power being employed for the purpose of acquiring knowledge, or obtaining rational amusement. The chaplain of the Glasgow bridewell, a very intelligent man, is decidedly of opinion that the prisoners in the bridewell are inferior to others in the same rank of life, in their amount of knowledge. He cannot say with precision how many of them are able to read easily, because no attempt is made to instruct those who are confined for short periods, unless they show a peculiar aptitude for learning; but he feels certain, that among the male prisoners (to whom his care is principally confined), the portion able to read easily does not exceed one quarter of the whole; and among the females the number appears to be yet less. The lady to whom the mental and religious instruction of the females is entrusted, did not attempt to state what portion of them are able to read easily; but she assured me that the number was exceedingly small. The knowledge of the prisoners, on moral and religious subjects, was represented to me to be quite as low as might be expected from their inability to read." So much for the effects of that species of ignorance which is by some represented as so blessingful.

There is one very vexing circumstance connected with the Scottish jail practice, which consists in the burghs and small towns being obliged to sustain and pay nearly all the expenses connected with their prisoners, no matter from what quarter the inmates are brought. This is clearly an unjust usage, and not only dilapidates the burgh funds, but must have a tendency to defeat the ends of justice. As samples of this very improper system, Mr. Hill mentions "that of four criminal prisoners whom he found in the jail at Montrose, not one was a native or resident of the town; and that of ten female prisoners in the jail at Ayr, nine were Irishwomen." A due allocation of expenses on the country at large, and the county in particular, is what is required to cure this serious evil.

All things considered, it is not surprising that imprisonment is generally looked upon by criminals as anything but a painful consequence of transgression. "I found the greater part of the jailors of opinion, that most of the prisoners care very little about being in prison; indeed, when it is considered that a prisoner is in general tolerably well fed and lodged, that he is required to do no labour whatsoever, and that he passes his time in company with those with whom it may generally be presumed he would wish to associate, it is probable that to many a prison life has charms which more than reconcile them to its restrictions. A striking instance of a criminal manifesting a desire to be in prison will be found in the report on the prison at Dundee." The following is the state of affairs at Dundee, thus referred to:—"Many who are committed in the first instance for an assault or other offence not necessarily betokening habits of crime, become adepts in thieving before they leave this prison, and afterwards return on charges connected with the art which they had there acquired. The demoralising effect of the prison paralyses, to a considerable extent, the administration of justice. The sheriff declared to me that he was often deterred from sentencing a prisoner to a long period of confinement, even for a very serious offence, because he clearly foresaw that he was sending him to a place where he would every day become more thoroughly corrupt himself, and where he would assist in the corruption of others. The jailor says that the same persons come over and over again into his hands, and that indeed he seldom receives a prisoner whom he does not recognise as having been in prison before. Of ten prisoners that were confined in one room, only one was there for the first time. There can, in fact, be no doubt that the kind of life led in the Dundee prison, instead of being one calculated to excite strong aversion, has many charms in the eyes of those who are likely to commit breaches of the law. The following anecdote is an illustration of this.—The term of imprisonment of a woman who had been sentenced to eighteen months' confinement, expired a short time ago. The day for her liberation having arrived, she was told that she was now at liberty to leave the prison; she, however, was in no hurry to take advantage of the permission. She said she had no home any where else, and that she would rather stay where she was; the jailor, however, having no authority to accommodate voluntary prisoners, told her that her time was up, and out she must go. This was on the Thursday; and on the following Tuesday the woman was found committing another theft, and that in so public a manner, that it

was evident it was her intention, and indeed her determination, to be again committed to prison. She succeeded in her object; and when I visited the prison I found her comfortably reinstated in her old quarters." It is a satisfaction to know that a new prison is in the course of erection in this town.

It appears from the report that a very great deal of inconvenience is experienced, and injury effected, by the vicious intermixture of criminals with debtors—a state of things hardly credible. Speaking of Brechin jail, the inspector remarks, "This is one of the worst prisons I have visited. There are in the whole two cells, one for criminals, and one for debtors; and, in addition, a damp vault, very properly designated the 'black hole,' which I was told the sheriff, when lately visiting the prison, had declared to be 'unfit even for a dog.' The prison is very insecure, and there are constant attempts at escape, which are sometimes successful. About three years ago, a great commotion was observed one day in church; and upon inquiring into the cause, it appeared that the magistrates had just received information that the prisoners had all run away. The freest communication can go on between the prisoners and persons in the street; and files, knives, and other instruments for escape, are often handed in at the windows. As we drew near to the prison, and while still in the street, I heard a great noise of laughing and talking; but the jailor clambered up to the window, and desired the prisoners to be still, for that 'a gentleman was coming.' On my entrance I found the inmates, consisting of three debtors, a criminal, and a visitor, regaling themselves with a bottle of whisky. I inquired of the jailor how he managed when there were female prisoners, and the debtors refused to receive the male criminals into their room; he said he was sometimes obliged to put female prisoners, in the daytime, along with the male debtors." At Dumbarton, "Female debtors, when there are any, which, however, is but seldom, are mixed with the female criminals." This occurs in a prison "of recent erection;" and we are further informed that "no difference is made between the treatment of the tried and the untold, who associate indiscriminately." This is a very common arrangement. In the prison of Perth things are in a sad condition. "Very little good (says Mr. Hill) can be produced by imprisonment in the Perth jail. The number of recommissions is very considerable, as may be inferred from the fact, that two of the prisoners at present in the jail (both women) have been there more than twenty times before; indeed, it is believed that no small number of the lowest class at Perth are well content to be in the prison occasionally, as they fare better there than at home, and are not required to do any work. The conduct of the prisoners is generally bad, and sometimes very turbulent; occasionally they enact what they call a 'hell scene.' Having assembled in the day-room, and provided a plentiful supply of water, they put out the candles, and then, amidst shouts, yells, and other discordant noises, and uttering revolting exclamations, they pull the fire to pieces, and fling the live coals round in every direction; others at the same time dashing water about, and in every way creating uproar and confusion." A small bridewell at Perth is on a much better footing. "In this little prison, the principles of complete separation and full employment are in constant operation; and so advantageously has the labour of the prisoners been applied, that, notwithstanding the disadvantage of proceeding on so small a scale, they have more than earned the cost of their food. It was quite a relief to visit this busy and well-organised little establishment, after witnessing the idleness, disorder, and evil association that prevail at the jail."

We had intended to follow up these stray gleanings with a few quotations from the plan suggested by the intelligent writer of the report for the improvement of the system; these, however, for want of space, we must postpone till a subsequent number.

CANADIAN SPORTS AND PASTIMES.

THE principal amusement of the Canadians is hunting; in fact, this is a nation of Nimrods; and there are few who do not possess a rifle or fowling-piece. Game is fast decreasing, though where clearing is only partially done, deer is more plentiful from the settlers destroying the wolves, which hunt them in packs like dogs, and the foxes which destroy the fawns. A vast number of deer are annually killed, and sold on an average, in London and Western districts, where they are plentiful, for less than two dollars, each weighing about one hundred to one hundred and eighty pounds. I know one farmer who killed thirty-six last fall. The best time for hunting is in the morning, after a slight fall of snow, which shows their tracks; a white great-coat or blanket coat is best, as you are least observed by the deer in that dress. The hunter who expects to succeed, must be very wary, and lay his account for fatigue; in general, the "cost o' ergangs the profit."

Bears and wolves are yet plenty in new townships, and some stragglers come near the villages occasionally, but they are now getting scarcer, the first, from the value of his skin, and the wolf, from the premium of from four to eight dollars being given for his scalp, by the country. Mr. Bruin is a surly John Bull sort of a character, inoffensive in his disposition, but likes pork, occasionally takes a hog, and when hunted for it dies game. But the wolf is a cowardly sneaking animal, and will run unless a number of them are together.

There is nothing I have ever heard so mournful and frightful (as I can say from experience), as being be-nighted without fire, near the swamps where they lodge, and hear them howling to one another; but there is very little danger if you have a fire, as they will not come near it. The settlers assemble sometimes, and hunts are formed to rouse them and the bears out of the swamps, and often the chase continues many days, but the wolves are mostly trapped; so are foxes, which retain a strong hankering after poultry and pigs.

Beavers, and the other very valuable fur animals, have totally disappeared where any settling has been done. Martens, muskrats, minks, and others, will soon be extinct; not so with all kinds of squirrels, racoons, chitmugs, and other vermin who infest the corn fields; you would think they are getting plentier, though vast quantities are annually killed. Some of the best shots in the world are here. I have seen vast quantities brought in, mostly shot through the head. An acquaintance of mine in Youngstown killed one afternoon twenty-four out of twenty-seven shots, and most of the squirrels were shot through the head with ball.

A good many turkeys are shot and trapped in London and Western districts; there are none I am told in the others, but all over Canada partridges of different kinds, pheasants, ducks, and but too many hawks, abound. Pigeons, in spring, come in such flocks, that sometimes a dozen have been taken down at a shot; in other seasons you may find stragglers, but none knows where the great body of them go. A few wild geese, cranes, and quails, are found, but very few crows, unless in old settled districts; there are comparatively few birds of any kind, and no songsters; but the plumage of the commonest bird is beautiful. The only birds of song are the frogs; if near a swamp, you may hear all notes from a tenor to deep bass. You may laugh at the idea of frog-singing, but it is far from being disagreeable. There are some enormous bullfrogs, and a kind that perch on trees, which are much valued for the skin, as the settlers say, but they are rarely caught. The Indians and some settlers run the deer with hounds, particularly in Newcastle district, near Rice Lake, and the other lakes back of Peterborough. The deer takes to the water, where others of the party are waiting for them in canoes or skiffs. But the greatest number are killed by "still-hunting;" the hunter going out alone, and without dogs, and shooting them wherever he meets them; on the whole, it is not much followed by old country people; many who risked life and liberty to kill a hare, never think of taking up a gun, giving as a reason that they care nothing about it now that they are not prevented. A good many fish are caught in the lakes at certain seasons. Salmon are not found in any of the lakes but Ontario, and the rivers emptied into it; they are mostly speared at night by torch light, are good eating, but have not the same flavour as yours. Muscalonge, which is the same as your pike, is very plenty and large; is taken mostly in spring; so are sturgeon, whitefish, trout, and a host of others, too tedious to mention. There is a kind of herring very plenty in Lake Ontario, and plenty of mullets, which is a fish like a small salmon, and so tame or stupid, that, with my hands alone, I one day in a few minutes took out nearly as many as I could carry.

There are few athletic or manly sports practised; no cricket, ball, or quoit playing, no "shinty or curling," though both wood and ice are plenty; all is absorbed in the ruling passion—shooting, gambling, and horse-racing, and in days of training the militia, a little wrestling, which often ends in fighting. A horse race is the place to see the folly and fashion of the backwoods. All kinds of tricks are put in practice to cheat the unwary, and there are generally two or three proprietors of gaming tables, who entice simpletons at night, and cheat them of their money. The very children have not the turn for the amusements of the old country. I have seen no marbles, hoop, button, or other games common to children; it is true the young creatures will play, but it is for money, and will bet like old fellows; in short, to see a boy of ten or twelve years of age, you would almost think him either an old man cut down, or believe in transmigration, and that his little body inherited the soul of his grandfather, he is so sly, so apt, and, in short, "auld-farrand."

The great resort of loungers is the bar-room and grocery; there are few who ask a room for themselves, but all drink in one common room, where the bar is; the bottle is placed on the table, and you take whatever quantity you like, allowing yourself to pay for as many glasses as you take; whisky, beer, and cider, are generally three coppers; brandy, wine, gin, and peppermint, six cents; when made into "sling" or toddy, it is doubled. There you will see two or three drunk Irishmen, or much drunker Scotchmen, screwing their faces into an appearance of drunken gravity; and here you will see a Yankee pedlar straddling across a chair, with his elbows on its back, and his feet on the stove.

Turkey and geese shooting matches are very common in winter. The victim is put at the distance of from fifteen to thirty rods, generally according to the price of each shot at them, varying from six to twelve cents a time; he who kills wins. Shooting parties matched against each other, sometimes on large wagers, but generally a dinner, sally forth, each endeavouring to bring in the most game; it is almost incredible the

quantity killed on such occasions. Raffling watches, clothes, shoes, clocks, and other things, is very common, but I would warn strangers from engaging in such pastimes. One of the chief winter amusements is sleigh riding; it is truly animating to see them dashing along, and hear the merry tingling of the sleigh bells. In the villages, people dress as well as they do in Britain, and there is by far less grudging at prices, though in some cases they are extravagant; clothes of all kinds, and particularly hats, meet with very rough usage.—From letters of a correspondent of Glasgow Liberator newspaper.

JULIA.

[The following epigrammatic verses will probably serve as a further illustration of the subject treated in the first article of the present number.]

Some people say they nothing love
In woman, save the sacred mind,
Pretending, in her boasted form,
No charm or merit they can find.
Others—and this is Thomson's school—
Are all for beauty undorned,
Caring small things, 'twould seem, for soul,
And holding dress but to be scorned.
Away with all such saving clauses!
I love my Julia altogether,
From soul within to silk without,
From point of toe to top of feather.
Her dear idea is to me
One lustrous silhouette of light,
Where every edge of lace and frill
Is as the inmost core as bright.
For instance, now, I love her eyes,
So dark, yet dove-like in expression;
Yet to the pendants at her ears,
My eyes will sometimes make digression.
Her cheeks are like the roses red,
Her mouth is like the parted cherry;
But don't these combs become her much?
Are they not charming? yes, oh very!
Her head moves with a queenly grace:
A crown would not look queer upon it;
But, in the meantime, is not this
A very tasteful sort of bonnet?
Her hands are soft and pale white,
Her fingers tapering, small, and seemly;
But oh her bracelets and her gloves,
I love them, love them most extremely.
Her feet so gentle are and small,
They give a grace to shoe and stocking;
Shoe, stocking, foot—'tis but one thing,
That sets this foolish heart a-knocking.
I am of Hooker's thought,
Who ludded on't as a sort of duty,
While he admired his fair one's face,
'T adores the shade even of her shoe-tye.
I wear a tassel from her gown,
Snug near my heart in left vest-pocket;
I have a ringlet of her hair,
Hung not more near it in a locket.
Her parasol, that from the sun
Protects her rosy complexion,
I don't know which I love the most.
The thing that takes, or gives protection.
The thrilling music of her voice
Puts all my senses in a tussle;
And every nerve springs up to hear
Her distant bombazines play rustle.
Whatever she does, whatever she says,
For good, indifferent, or ill,
'Tis all one luxury to my soul,
'Tis Julia yet, 'tis Julia still.
Say that she talks of mutual love,
And puts her poor swain in a rapture;
Say that she tells her kitchen-maid
To make in poultry-yard a capture;
Say that she reads some touching tale,
That gems with tears her soft eye-lashes;
Say that she pities but the scribe
Whom some fell critic cuts and slashes;
'Tis all one thing—mind, person, dress—
The formed of heaven, or dust, or shears—
I love the whole and nothing less,
I love her over-head—and ears.

REMARKABLE TENURES OF LANDS.

THE following instances of remarkable tenures of land in England are quoted from an old provincial newspaper:—

WORKSOP, COUNTY OF NOTTINGHAM.—King Henry VIII., in the thirty-third year of his reign, granted to George Talbot, earl of Shrewsbury, the site and precinct of the monastery of Worksop, with its appurtenances, in the county of Nottingham; to be held of the king in capite, by the service of the tenth part of a knight's fee;* and by the royal service of finding the king a right-hand glove at his coronation, and to support his right arm that day, as long as he should hold the sceptre in his hand, and paying yearly L.23, 5s. 6d.

At the coronation of king James II., this service was claimed and allowed; and at the coronation of George III., the same service was performed by the most hon. Charles marquis of Rockingham, as deputy to the duke of Norfolk, lord of the manor of Worksop.

HEYDEN, COUNTY OF ESSEX.—At the coronation of king James II., the lord of the manor of Heyden, in Essex, claimed to hold the basin and ewer to the king, by virtue of one moiety, and the towel by virtue of another moiety of the said manor, when the king washes before dinner, which claim was allowed as to the towel only.

BARDOLFE, COUNTY OF SURREY.—And, at the coronation of the same king, the lord of the manor of

Bardolfe, in Addington, Surrey, claimed to find a man to make a mess of grout in the king's kitchen; and therefore prayed, that the king's master-cook might perform that service, which claim was allowed, and the said lord of the manor brought it up to the king's table.

LISTON, COUNTY OF ESSEX.—In the forty-first of Edward III., Joan, the wife of William Liston, held the manor of Overall, in this parish, by the service of paying for bringing in and placing of five wafers before the king, as he sits at dinner, upon the day of his coronation.

At the coronation of king James II., the lord of the manor of Liston, in Essex, claimed to make wafers for the king and queen, and serve them up to their table; to have all the instruments of silver and other metal used about the same, with the linen, and certain proportions of ingredients, and other necessaries, and liveries for himself and two men; which claim was allowed, and the service, with his consent performed by the king's officers, and the fees compounded for at L.30.

At the coronation of George III. and his queen, William Campbell of Liston Hall, Esq., as lord of this manor, claimed to do the same service, which was allowed; and the king was pleased to appoint his son William Henry Campbell, Esq. to officiate as his deputy, who accordingly attended, and presented the wafers to their majesties.

WINTERSLEW, COUNTY OF WILTS.—John de Rockes holds the manor of Winterslew, in the county of Wilts, by the service, that, when our lord the king should abide at Clarendon, he should come to the palace of the king there, and go into the butlery, and draw out any vessel he should find in the said butlery at his choice, as much wine as should be needful for making a pitcher of claret, which he should make at the king's charge; and that he should serve the king with a cup, and should have the vessel from whence he took the wine, with all the remainder of the wine left in the vessel, together with the cup out of which the king should drink that claret.

COPERLAND AND ATTERTON, COUNTY OF KENT.—Solomon Attelfield held land at Keperland and Alterton, in the county of Kent, that as often as our lord the king would cross the sea, the said Solomon and his heirs ought to go along with him, to hold his hand on the sea, if it was needful.

HEMINGSTON, COUNTY OF SUFFOLK.—Rowland de Sarcere held one hundred and ten acres of land in Hemingston, in the county of Suffolk, by the service; for which, on Christmas-day, every year before our sovereign lord the king of England, he should perform altogether, and once, a leap, a dance and some indecent action, on which latter account was rented, says the record, at 20s. 8d. per year, the king's exchequer.

OVENHELLE, COUNTY OF KENT.—Sir Osbert Longchamp, knight, holds certain land, which is called Ovenhelle, in the county of Kent, by the service of following our lord the king in his army into Wales forty days, at his own costs, with a horse at the price of 5s., a sack of the price of 6d., and with a needle in the same sack.

MORTON, COUNTY OF ESSEX.—Henry de Avera holds the manor of Morton, in the county of Essex, in capite, of our lord the king, by the service of finding one man with a horse of the price of 10s., and four horseshoes, and one leather sack, and one iron jug, as often as it should happen for the king to go into Wales with his army, at his own charges, for four days.

CHETTINGTON, COUNTY OF SALOP.—Roger Corb holds the manor of Chettington, in the county of Salop, of the king, in capite, by the service of finding one footman in time of war, in the king's army, in Wales, with one bow and three arrows, and one pig, and carrying with him one bacon or salted hog; and when he comes to the army, delivering to the king marshal a moiety of the bacon; and thence the marshal was to deliver to him, daily, some of that moiety for his dinner, so long as he staid in the army; as he was to follow the army so long as that half of the bacon should last.

BRINESTON, COUNTY OF CHESTER OR DORSET.—The manor of Brineston, in the county of Chester, held of the king, in capite, by the service of finding man in the army of our lord the king, going into the parts of Scotland, bare-foot, clothed with a shirt and breeches, having in one hand a bow without a string and in the other an arrow unfeathered.

BOCKHAMPTON, COUNTY OF BERKS.—William Hoppeshort half a yard-land in that town, of our lord the king, by the service of entertaining for the king six damsels, at the cost of the king.

BROKENEST, COUNTY OF HANTS.—Peter Spilman paid a fine to the king, for the lands which the said Peter held by the seigniorship of finding an equi with a hambergell, or coat of mail, for forty days, in England, and of finding litter for the king's bed, and hay for the king's palfrey, when the king should be at Brokenest, in the county of Southampton.

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* A knight's fee, in the reign of Edward II., amounted to L.30.